1	Hazardous metal additives in plastics and their environmental impacts
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19 Abstract

20 Historically, many additives and catalysts used in plastics were based on compounds of toxic metals 21 (and metalloids), like arsenic, cadmium, chromium(VI) and lead. Despite subsequent restrictions, hazardous additives remain in plastics in societal circulation because of the pervasiveness of many 22 23 products and the more general contamination of recycled goods. However, little is understood about 24 their presence and impacts in the environment, with most studies focusing on the role of plastics in 25 acquiring metals from their surrounding through, for example, adsorption. Accordingly, this paper 26 provides a review of the uses of hazardous, metal-based additives in plastics, the relevant European 27 regulations that have been introduced to restrict or prohibit usage in various sectors, and the likely environmental impacts of hazardous additives once plastics are lost in nature. Examination of the 28 29 literature reveals widespread occurrence of hazardous metals in environmental plastics, with 30 impacts ranging from contamination of the waste stream to increasing the density and settling rates 31 of material in aquatic systems. A potential concern from an ecotoxicological perspective is the 32 diffusion of metals from the matrix of micro- and nanoplastics under certain physico-chemical 33 conditions, and especially favorable here are the acidic environments encountered in the digestive 34 tract of many animals (birds, fish, mammals) that inadvertently consume plastics. For instance, in vitro studies have shown that the mobilization of Cd and Pb from historical microplastics can greatly 35 36 exceed concentrations deemed to be safe according to migration limits specified by the current 37 European Toy Safety Directive (17 mg kg⁻¹ and 23 mg kg⁻¹, respectively). When compared with 38 concentrations of metals typically adsorbed to plastics from the environment, the risks from 39 pervasive, historical additives are far more significant.

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41 Keywords: plastics; hazardous additives; metals; regulations; recycling; environmental impacts

43 1. Introduction

Plastics contain not only polymers or copolymers but chemicals that have been deliberately added for some functionality or that remain as residues or contaminants from the manufacturing process. Functional additives are many and varied include plasticizers, stabilizers, pigments for color, fillers and extenders, flame retardants, blowing agents, antioxidants, impact modifiers, lubricants and antimicrobial agents, while residues include monomers, intermediates and catalysts arising from polymerization and legacy contaminants introduced through material recycling (Murphy, 2001;

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50 Hahladakis et al., 2018).
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51 From an environmental perspective, the focus of much recent research has been on the impacts 52 resulting from the mobilization of potentially harmful additives and residues into aqueous media and their subsequent propensity for bioaccumulation. However, the emphasis has been on endocrine-53 54 disrupting organic compounds, and in particular phthalate-based plasticizers, bisphenol A, 55 alkylphenols and brominated flame retardants (Engler, 2012; Tanaka et al., 2013; Koelmans et al., 56 2014; Suhrhoff and Scholz-Böttcher, 2016; De Frond et al., 2019; Schmidt et al., 2019). Significantly, 57 in many recent review and perspective articles where additives are generally discussed, there is little or no mention of chemicals in plastics that contain metals or metalloids known to be harmful (Li et 58 59 al., 2016; Kwon et al., 2017; Gallo et al., 2018; Franzellitti et al., 2019; Fred-Ahmadu et al., 2020a). This is surprising given the well-established and widespread regulations and restrictions in place for 60 61 such chemicals in plastics but is perhaps attributable to the misconception that plastics are more 62 significant carriers of adsorbed metals than sources of matrix-bound additive metals (Vedolin et al., 63 2018; Bradney et al., 2019; Wang et al., 2019; Nagash et al., 2020; Zhang and Chen, 2020).

64 In the present paper, we describe the historical uses of plastic additives based on metals and 65 metalloids (hereafter collectively referred to as metals) that are deemed to be hazardous; that is, those that have been incorporated into regulations on plastics based on their known or suspected 66 67 toxicities. Accordingly, we also define relevant, current European regulations for hazardous metals in plastics that are in place for consumer and environmental protection, and discuss shortfalls in these 68 69 regulations and in circular economies that result in the introduction and dispersion of metals into 70 newer products through material recycling. However, the main focus is a critical evaluation of the 71 role of hazardous metal additives on the environmental behavior and impacts of plastics, including 72 microplastics, that are lost in nature. Here, we also compare concentrations of hazardous metals 73 added to plastics with those acquired from the environment, and make recommendations for risk 74 evaluation based on appropriate European regulations involving metal migration. The intention of 75 this review is that future research will focus on metals and plastics that pose the greatest potential

harm rather than generate results that fail to demonstrate environmental or ecotoxicological

77 significance.

78 2. Metal additives in plastics

79 Metals may remain in plastics as catalytic or reaction residues, with a well-documented example 80 being catalytic Sb contaminating polyethylene terephthalate (Takahashi et al., 2008; Filella, 2020). 81 The principal primary source of metals in plastics more generally, however, is functional additives. 82 Metal-based additives may be insoluble inorganic compounds, partially soluble organic compounds 83 or organometallic liquids or salts. Inorganic and organometallic compounds have superior heat 84 resistance and weathering properties and are cheaper, but concerns about their impacts on human 85 health and the environment have resulted in a gradual shift towards organic compounds or non-86 metal-based alternatives in many sectors (Tolinski, 2015). Metal concentrations in the final product depend on the type of polymer, the nature of the additive and the desired effect (e.g. opacity, depth 87 88 of shade, thickness of article or intended environment of usage) but can often reach values of 89 several percent on a weight basis (with some inorganic compounds contributing up to one half of 90 the final product mass; Hahladakis et al., 2018).

91 Metal-based additives have a wide range of functions in plastics and may act as, for example, 92 biocides, antimicrobial agents, lubricants and flame retardants. However, their principal uses are as 93 inert fillers, pigments for color and stabilizers (Murphy, 2001; Janssen et al., 2016). Fillers increase 94 the stiffness and hardness of plastic and often reduce the cost of the product as they are generally 95 cheaper than the base polymer. Industrial mineral fillers include barium sulfate (barytes), calcium 96 carbonate (calcite) and hydrated magnesium silicate (talc). Synthetic organic pigments include 97 phthalocyanines, coordination complexes of copper that mimic the structures of porphyrins, while 98 inorganic pigments include a range of compounds but mainly oxides and sulfides. Some inorganic 99 pigments are multifunctional, with ZnO and Sb₂O₃, for example, both acting as white pigments but 100 also serving as a fungicide and flame retardant synergist, respectively.

As heat stabilizers, metal-based compounds have found extensive use in the versatile, and widely used thermoplastic, polyvinyl chloride (PVC). This material decomposes at a temperature lower than its processing temperature and countering thermo-oxidative degradation requires chemicals that can substitute stable groups for labile chlorine atoms in the polymer and react with HCl generated by the degradation process. To this end, the most important stabilizers are metal soaps, including Pb-, Cd-, Ba-, Ca- and Zn-dicarboxylates, and various organotin compounds (Liu et al., 2007).

107 Additives are normally mixed with the polymer melt as liquids or solids, with the latter incorporated 108 as fine particles of average diameters on the order of a few micrometers or a few hundred 109 nanometers that disperse in the matrix (Murphy, 2001). Particles larger than this may impact on the 110 strength and appearance of the finished product while smaller particles are subject to 111 agglomeration. Particles are generally prepared by precipitation, calcination (if the compound is 112 sufficiently heat-stable) and grinding. In theory, metal compounds added to plastics as particles, and 113 at least those in inorganic form, should not migrate from the matrix and, therefore, pose little risk to 114 the consumer or, under appropriate disposal conditions, the environment. However, empirical 115 studies undertaken in the 1970s demonstrated the release of insoluble cadmium compounds from micronized particles of acrylonitrile butadiene styrene (ABS), a plastic commonly used in toys, under 116 117 conditions representative of the human digestive system (Fowles et al., 1977). Concerns about the 118 more general migration of metals that are toxic resulted in regulations and voluntary commitments 119 that restricted the use, concentration or mobility of certain metals in consumer and industrial 120 plastics.

3. Current European regulations on the use of metal additives in plastics and definition ofhazardous metals

123 3.1. European regulations

Table 1 lists metals that are used or that have been used as additives in plastics where European
regulatory directives are now in place. Note that many of these directives are adopted or form the
basis of regulations in the wider international community (ACCC, 2008; Horn, 2016).

127 The Toy Safety (TS) Directive and its amendments lay down criteria that toys must meet before being 128 marketed in the EU (European Parliament and Council of the EU, 2009; Council of the European 129 Union, 2017). For materials that can be 'scraped off', including plastics, concentration limits on the 130 migration of eighteen species of sixteen metals in 0.07 M HCl at 37 °C for 2 h are stipulated. In 131 contrast, the Restriction of Hazardous Substances (RoHS) Directive, that includes electronic and 132 electrical plastic housings and insulation (European Parliament and Council, 2003; 2011), and the 133 End-of-Life Vehicles (ELV) Directive, that encompasses plastic components of vehicles (European 134 Parliament and of the Council, 2000; Commission Directive, 2017), set total concentration limits for four metals (1000 mg kg⁻¹ for Cr(VI), Hg and Pb, and 100 mg kg⁻¹ for Cd). The Packaging and 135 136 Packaging Waste (PPW) Directive is also restricted to these metals but sets a combined total 137 concentration limit of 100 mg kg⁻¹ (European Parliament and Council of the EU, 1994) while the 138 Directive relating to plastics intended to come into contact with foodstuffs (CFS) stipulates different 139 but substantially lower total concentration limits for five metals (Commission Directive, 2002). An

- amendment to a Council Directive dealing with the marketing and use of dangerous substances
- 141 (Council Directive, 1976) now specifically restricts the use of di- and tri-substituted organotin
- 142 compounds to 1000 mg kg⁻¹ by weight of Sn in plastics, and is particularly relevant to PVC
- 143 (Commission Decision, 2009).
- 144 3.2. Voluntary commitments for PVC

145 Because of the more specific health and sustainability concerns about the production, use and 146 disposal of PVC, regulations for this particular plastic were called for. However, European producers 147 and stake-holders proposed a series of voluntary measures that included phasing out the intentional 148 introduction of Cd- and Pb-based stabilizers in the EU through a series of charters, like "Vinyl 2010". 149 Thus, manufacture of Cd used as a stearate or laurate and combined with a Ba ester was 150 discontinued in the EU-27 in 2007, while Pb compounds, including stearates and basic sulfates, were discontinued in the EU-28 in December 2015 and replaced by safer Ca-based alternatives (VinylPlus, 151 152 2014). This approach exemplifies how successful voluntary commitments from industry can be 153 without the usual control enforcement from regulatory authorities (Buekens and Sevenster, 2010).

154 3.3. Hazardous metal additives in plastics

Also identified in Table 1 are metals in plastics that are considered "hazardous"; that is, metals that

are currently included in at least two of the aforementioned directives and are defined in the

157 Registration, Evaluation, Authorization and Restriction of Chemicals (REACH) Candidate list of

- substances of very high concern (SVHC) by the European Chemicals Agency (ECHA). Specific
- 159 compounds of these metals that have commonly been used in plastics, and in particular in Europe,
- are defined and characterized in Table 2 along with best estimates of their concentration range in
- 161 finished products. Note that while most compounds are additives, the list also includes catalysts
- arising from the manufacturing process that remain in certain plastics.

Organometallic forms of As, Hg and Sn found in plastics include 10,10'-oxybisphenoxarsine, a broad 163 164 spectrum fungicide and antimicrobial agent used mainly in unplasticized PVC, various phenylmercury 165 compounds used in the production of polyurethane, of which phenylmercury neodecanoate appears 166 to have had the most widespread use in Europe (ECHA, 2010), and dibutyl tins used as stabilizers for 167 PVC when Pb compounds are not suitable or as catalysts in the production of polyurethane. Organic metal compounds (mainly organic acid salts) include the blue pigment, Co(II) diacetate, used for 168 169 coloring polyethylene terephthalate, and various soaps of Cd used to heat- and light-stabilize PVC. 170 Inorganic compounds include chromium(VI) trioxide, used in the production of polyethylene, various 171 basic salts of Pb used to stabilize and lubricate PVC (note that Pb soaps have had less use in the

European PVC market; ECHA, 2016), and pigments based on compounds of Cd, Hg and Pb (with thelatter often employed in combination with Cr(VI)).

174 Inorganic pigments are centered around the intensely colored, calcined compounds of CdS and 175 PbCrO₄. Cadmium sulfide is bright yellow, with excellent thermal stability, light and weather fastness 176 and chemical resistance. Yellow pigments are achieved with solid solutions of CdS and ZnS while 177 oranges and reds are prepared with solid solutions of CdS and CdSe. Although solid solutions of CdS 178 and HgS can also engender a similar color range (Tamaddon and Hogland, 1993), relatively poor 179 light-fastness and heat stability of the latter sulfide has resulted in limited use of this combination in 180 plastics since the 1950s (Rangos, 2004; Filella and Turner, 2018). Lead chromate is also bright yellow and characterized by high fastness and heat stability, and can be mixed with PbSO₄ and PbMoO₄ 181 182 (where S and Mo are incorporated into the crystal lattice of the chromate) and, sometimes, PbO, to 183 create a range of colors similar to Cd-based solid solutions. Although chromates are generally 184 applicable in thermoplastics, some polymers require suitable surface treatment of the pigments 185 through, for example, stabilization by silicate or alumina (Ranta-Korpi et al., 2014). Pigments of both 186 Cd and Pb can also be modified or mixed with other pigments to expand the color range to greens 187 and browns.

188 4. Hazardous metal additives in society and in the environment

189 *4.1. Plastics in societal circulation*

190 In theory, hazardous metal-based additives are no longer intentionally incorporated into 191 contemporary plastics, at least in Europe (Ranta-Korpi et al., 2014). However, recent research 192 suggests that such additives are still illegally employed in certain consumer goods available in the EU 193 (but not necessarily manufactured there) and that historical, industrial plastics containing hazardous 194 metals have been used to manufacture consumer goods with the intention of being environmentally 195 positive (Turner and Filella, 2021). More generally, because of the durability of many plastics, 196 historical products in circulation (like toys) or employed for construction or plumbing (such as PVC 197 window frames and piping) may contain high levels of restricted metals (Turner, 2018b; Turner, 198 2019; Klöckner et al., 2020; Wagner and Schlummer, 2020). Significantly, Tamaddon and Hogland 199 (1993) suggest that consumer plastics may have lifetimes up to 40 years, a timeframe that 200 significantly predates all regulations given in Table 1. A more recent and detailed product lifetime 201 analysis by Geyer et al. (2017) suggests mean values of 35 years and 20 years for building-202 construction and industrial-machinery plastics, respectively, with upper estimates exceeding 50 203 years in both cases.

204 More broadly, the recycling of plastics, and especially poorly managed or dismantled electronic 205 plastics both within and outside of the EU, has introduced traces of restricted additives into a wider 206 range of contemporary products in both the consumer and industrial sectors (Guzzonato et al., 2017; 207 Turner and Filella, 2017; Eriksen et al., 2018). From a health perspective, this is a particular problem 208 for food-contact plastics or toys designed for young children (Chen et al., 2009; Kuang et al., 2018). 209 Although it has been suggested that plastics known or suspected to contain hazardous additives be 210 recycled into products where human exposure is minimal (e.g. pallets, lumber, refuse facilities, 211 guttering, road signs; Turner, 2018a), identification and sorting of such materials on an industrial 212 scale is not yet feasible.

213 4.2. Plastics in the environment

214 In general, the makeup of plastics in the environment reflects that of plastics used by consumers and 215 by industry (neglecting, for now, any chemical modifications incurred by chemical acquisition from 216 the surroundings). However, the plastic stock in the environment is predicted to be more 217 contaminated by restricted additives than the stock in societal circulation, and certainly than in 218 societal plastics manufactured over the past twenty years that reflect the clear decline in the use of 219 hazardous substances (Janssen et al., 2016). This discrepancy may be attributed to a number of 220 factors. Thus, first, plastics have been subject to uncontrolled discharge to the environment since their manufacture began several decades ago, and residence times for terminal or temporary 221 222 receptors of many products (e.g. sediments and soils) are likely to greatly exceed timeframes of 223 production (Geyer et al., 2017). Second, the historical use of many heavy metal-based additives for 224 thermal and light protection means that such plastics are predicted to be more persistent in the 225 environment relative to plastics that are newer, that contain no additives or that contain additives 226 that degrade. In support of this contention, Prunier et al. (2019) found relatively high concentrations 227 of Ti in plastics sampled from the surface waters of North Atlantic Gyre and proposed that their 228 persistence is related to the UV-absorbing properties of TiO₂. Third, significant point sources of 229 historical and unregulated plastics exist, such as poorly maintained and managed, collapsing coastal 230 landfills (Pope et al., 2012). Fourth, and despite restrictions and regulations in place (see Table 1), 231 many current industrial practices appear to employ plastics that contain hazardous metal-based 232 additives.

These assertions are consistent with high, total or extractable concentrations of restricted metals in
many primary objects and secondary fragments of plastic litter on coastal and lacustrine beaches
and in freshwater sediment and agricultural fields (Nakashima et al., 2012a; 2012b; Imhof et al.,
2016; Turner and Solman, 2016; Turner, 2017; Filella and Turner, 2018, 2021; Munier and Bendell,

237 2018; Prunier et al., 2019; Santos-Echeandía et al., 2020; Turner et al., 2019). Amongst contaminated 238 litter in these studies are (presumably) historical consumer plastics, including toys, cartridges, bottle 239 tops and compost packaging, fragments of PVC and polyurethane whose origin is usually unknown, 240 and industrial plastics like fragments of fishing line, netting and floats, and polyethylene microbeads 241 ("biobeads"; Turner et al., 2019) used in many modern municipal water treatment plants. Table 3 242 provides examples of the maximum, total concentrations of Cd and Pb (two of the most widely 243 occurring restricted metals) reported in plastic litter from a range of environments and as 244 determined non-destructively by X-ray fluorescence (XRF) spectrometry or, following sample 245 digestion in nitric acid, by inductively coupled plasma-mass spectrometry. Although the frequency of 246 detection and distribution of concentrations are not always available, the data are entirely 247 consistent with the quantitative information given in Table 2 and serve to illustrate how widespread

248 hazardous additives are in environmental plastics.

249 Regarding the specific hazardous metals and compounds present in environmental plastics reported

in the literature and determined by XRF spectrometry (and exemplified in Figure 1), these are largely

in agreement with the information presented in Table 2, but with some significant exceptions and

additions. Thus, in many colored objects, Pb is present with Cr and Cd is present alone or with Se or,

253 occasionally, Hg, as inorganic pigments, with Pb and Cd concentrations up to a few thousand mg kg⁻¹

and Pb and Cr usually present in a ratio similar to that in PbCrO₄ (~ 4:1 on a mass basis) (Turner and

Solman, 2016; Filella and Turner, 2018). In PVC, Sn or Cd are sometimes present at concentrations of

a few thousand mg kg $^{-1}$ but Pb is more commonly encountered and at concentrations of up to

257 25,000 mg kg⁻¹ and As is rarely detected (Turner and Solman, 2016; Filella and Turner, 2018).

258 Environmental plastics that are colored black can also contain significant quantities of Pb and, less

259 frequently, Cd. Here, their presence results from the inability to sort dark colored polymers by near

260 infra-red technology and the consequent illegal recycling of black electronic plastics into a wide

range of consumer and industrial products (Turner, 2018a; Shaw and Turner, 2019).

262 **5. Potential environmental impacts of hazardous metals in plastics**

263 5.1. Material disposal and recycling

264 Conventional disposal and energy-from-waste practices involving metal-rich products result in the 265 contamination of landfill leachate, fly ash and bottom ash, with consequent constraints on the use or 266 safe disposal of the latter materials (Mangialardi, 2003; Krausova et al., 2016). In this context, the 267 occurrence or importance of hazardous metals in historical or recycled plastic waste has often been 268 overlooked (Ranti-Korpa et al., 2014). Nakamura et al. (1996) estimated the metal content of 269 component materials in the Japanese municipal and commercial waste stream and suggested that

270 about 0.5% and 2.4% of total cadmium and lead, respectively, were derived from plastics. In 271 contrast, estimates of metals in the more general, contemporary waste stream suggest that plastic is 272 the main material carrier of total cadmium (almost 50%) and a highly significant carrier of total lead 273 (about 17%) (Viczek et al., 2020). Presumably, the increase in hazardous metal contributions from 274 plastics is attributable to the improved regulation and management of low abundant articles of high 275 metal content, like batteries, paints and electronic equipment, coupled with the pervasiveness of 276 many non-recyclable, historical plastic items. To further significantly reduce the metal content of 277 waste would, therefore, require a means of identifying and eliminating plastics containing hazardous 278 additives that can operate on an industrial scale.

279 5.2. Density modification

280 Additives based on heavy metals like Cd and Pb can increase the density of plastic by small but significant amounts. This effect has been employed in the recycling industry in order to separate 281 denser and more harmful additive-laden plastics from "cleaner", additive-free materials, and in 282 283 particular for isolating and eliminating plastics enriched in brominated flame retardants (Retegan et 284 al., 2010; Haarman and Gasser, 2016). For polymers whose inherent density is similar to but lower 285 than that of fresh water or seawater ($\rho = 1$ to 1.03 g cm⁻³), like polyethylene or polypropylene ($\rho \sim$ 286 0.90 to 0.97 g cm⁻³), a small increase arising from the addition of lead chromate ($\rho = 6.12$ g cm⁻³; 287 Table 2), for example, can result in plastic that sinks rather than floats. While this may be 288 inconsequential for products while in use, in the aquatic environment a small increase in density 289 could markedly modify its transport, fate and bioavailability. To this end, it has been proposed that 290 there may be some kind of fractionation (settling versus floating) of polyolefins in the freshwater 291 and marine environments based on their hazardous metal additive content, and that shore-based 292 sampling of stranded, lighter materials may underestimate the environmental stock of metal-rich 293 plastics (Turner and Filella, 2020).

294 5.3. Metal diffusion from plastics

295 Because metal additives are generally not chemically bound to polymers, they have the propensity 296 to mobilize from the matrix via diffusion and mass transfer into the surrounding aqueous phase 297 (Wilson et al., 1982; Mercea et al., 2018; Chen et al., 2019; Mao et al., 2020). This effect is often 298 considered in regulations by fixing a maximum concentration of a chemical allowed to be released 299 when empirical tests are applied. These tests are not based on any mechanistic approach but rather 300 employ simplified and standardized extractant solutions that attempt to mimic realistic conditions, 301 such as those encountered in the human digestive environment (European Parliament and Council 302 of the EU, 2009) or in human sweat (OEKO-TEX Association, 2020; Biver et al., 2021), or those that

simulate the migration of food during storage or cooking (Conti, 2008; van Putten, 2011; Kao, 2012;
Schmid and Welle, 2020).

305 Fluxes of metals in plastics can be theoretically described by Fick's first law provided that diffusion 306 coefficients for the metals and their compounds actually present in the polymers are known 307 (PlasticsEurope, undated; Barnes et al., 2007). Published diffusion coefficients are sparse and often 308 limited to specific problems such as migration into potable water or food (Hampe and Piringer, 1998; 309 Adams et al., 2011; Fang and Vitrac, 2017) but a recent compilation of estimates obtained at or 310 around room temperature and relevant in the context of metal migration from environmental 311 plastics is given by Town et al. (2018). Here, values are 1.5 x 10⁻²⁰ m² s⁻¹ for Pb acetate in low density polyethylene, about 10⁻¹⁵ m² s⁻¹ for species of dibutyl tin in polypropylene, 1.7 x 10⁻¹⁷ to 5 x 10⁻²⁰ m² s⁻¹ 312 ¹ for Cd stearate in PVC, and 6 x 10⁻¹⁷ to 4 x 10⁻²³ m² s⁻¹ for Pb stearate and dibasic Pb phosphite in 313

PVC. By comparison, diffusion coefficients for metal ions in aqueous media are on the order of 5 to
 20 x 10⁻¹⁰ m² s⁻¹.

316 The rate at which mobilization by molecular diffusion takes place is proportional to the square of the 317 distance to travel. This means that the complete release of metals or metallic compounds from very small particles or thin sheets (of nanometer to micrometer dimensions) is predicted to take place 318 319 over timescales of hours to days, and nanoplastics exposed to the environment are predicted to be 320 rapidly depleted of metal additives. On the other hand, the complete metal release from larger 321 particles (hundreds of micrometers to millimeter dimensions) is predicted to take years to decades 322 or longer. In practice, however, studies often reveal that metal release from plastics of this size 323 range is significantly more rapid, with rates of mobilization flattening after a period of time (Martin 324 and Turner, 2019; Smith and Turner, 2020; see Figure 2). This suggests that there may be a pulse of 325 initial metal release, possibly due to the presence of a "leachable" layer at the surface of the plastic, 326 followed by much slower diffusion. Such an effect has recently been invoked to explain the nature 327 and kinetics of Sb release from PET bottles (Filella, 2020).

- 328 5.4. Mobilization of metals from plastics in the environment

The rate of metal mobilization from plastic will increase if conditions favor the dissociation of metal compounds in the matrix or alter the speciation in the aqueous phase and maintain or enhance the concentration gradient of the diffusing metal species. Such conditions include a reduction in pH and the introduction of complexants to the aqueous phase, and may be particularly significant in the extracellular (e.g. stomach) or intracellular (e.g. lysosomes) digestive environments of many organisms (Zhong et al., 2006; Smith and Turner, 2020). Some hazardous additives, including cadmium sulfoselenide pigments, are also photoactive and undergo more ready dissociation and

diffusion when exposed to visible and ultraviolet light compared with dark conditions (Fowles et al.,
1977; Liu et al., 2017). Consequently, a clear increase in Cd mobilization from microplastics is
observed when aqueous suspensions are irradiated by artificial sunlight (Liu et al., 2020). Organotin
compounds in PVC exhibit both greater mobilization and photodegradation under visible and
ultraviolet light but increasing salinity appears to inhibit these effects (Chen et al., 2019).

341 More generally, metal mobilization is expected to increase when the plastic is weathered or 342 degraded in the environment, presumably because of the associated increase in porosity and surface 343 area of the aged matrix (Zhang et al., 2018). Experiments performed by Nakashima et al. (2016) on 344 newly purchased PVC fishing floats containing Pb stearate as a stabilizer have provided mechanistic 345 and quantitative insights into the effect of surface damage on metal mobilization into pure water. 346 Thus, release is initially rapid, and in particular during the first 24 h, because of diffusion from the surface layer whose thickness is about 1 μ m. This is, presumably, equivalent to the leachable layer 347 348 referred to above and accounts for about 0.1% of total Pb. Thereafter, mobilization tails off as this 349 layer becomes depleted of Pb but is accelerated when the plastic surface is scarified by sandpaper, 350 simulating erosion when beached, for example, and exposes areas of a new leachable layer.

351 Figure 2 shows results of timed experiments in which two micronized plastics (PVC piping and 352 polycarbonate-ABS reconstituted from electronic waste and containing added Pb and contaminating 353 Cd, respectively) were exposed to conditions designed to replicate the residence time and 354 chemistries of the digestive system of a seabird (Smith and Turner, 2020). Note the relatively rapid 355 release of metals in the early stages of the experiments, consistent with the initial pulse and 356 leachable layer described above. Exposure to neutral saline solution (0.1 mol L⁻¹ NaCl) at 40°C results 357 in limited but not insignificant mobilization of Pb and Cd; specifically, the percentage of Pb mobilized 358 from PVC is similar to that reported in pure water by Nakashima et al. (2016). The dissolution of 359 compounded inorganic additives is dramatically increased by reducing the pH of the solution to 2.5 360 (and in the presence of the digestive enzyme, pepsin), and the further addition of menhaden fish oil, 361 mimicking the presence of a dietary component, increases the dissolution of Pb but decreases the 362 release of Cd, presumably by affecting the integrity of the polymer or acting to block diffusing species, respectively. At the end of the exposures, the maximum Pb and Cd concentrations mobilized 363 were about 1800 mg kg⁻¹ and 20 mg kg⁻¹, respectively. Relative to total metal concentrations in the 364 365 plastics (and as annotated), this represents respective bioaccessibilities of about 9% and over 60%. 366 Clearly, therefore, significant quantities of hazardous metals have the potential to be mobilized from 367 historical and recycled plastics under certain environmental or physiological conditions, and in 368 particular those representative of the acidic digestive system of birds, mammals and fish.

369 Bioaccessibility is not necessarily equivalent to bioavailability and by itself does not provide evidence 370 that metallic additives in plastics exert toxicity. However, the adverse impacts of certain metals 371 (including Pb and Sn) in PVC on aquatic life have been demonstrated empirically, albeit at 372 environmentally unrealistic plastic concentrations. Thus, Lithner et al. (2012) attributed the leaching 373 of metals (including Sn) from PVC products exposed to deionized water for three days at 50 °C to be 374 responsible for toxicity to Daphnia magna. More recently, Boyle et al. (2020) found that exposure of 375 up to 500 mg L⁻¹ of PVC particles (mean diameter = 150 μ m) to the larvae of zebrafish (*Danio rerio*) 376 increased expression of metallothionein 2, a metal-binding protein, but no expression changes were 377 observed in biomarkers of estrogenic or organic contaminants. Subsequent leachate analysis 378 revealed that Pb mobilized from the plastic was responsible and that aqueous concentrations 379 reached over 80 μ g L⁻¹ over a 24 h period.

380 5.5. Hazardous metals added during manufacture versus accumulated from the environment

381 Much recent research into or mention of metals and microplastics in the environment refers to 382 material acting as a vector for the transport and bioaccumulation of ions or complexes acquired 383 from the surrounding environment (Vedolin et al., 2018; Bradney et al., 2019; Li et al., 2020; Ta and 384 Babel, 2020; Purwiyanto et al., 2020; Yu et al., 2020). A compilation of concentrations of acid-385 extractable Cd and Pb associated with various plastics retrieved directly from aquatic settings (as 386 opposed to being exposed to metals under controlled laboratory conditions) is given in Table 4. Note 387 that direct comparisons are hampered by the use of different extractants by the various authors (no 388 standard protocol exists in the literature; Hildebrand et al., 2020) and that in many cases the metals 389 are likely adsorbed onto or co-precipitated with iron oxy(hydroxides) and organic precipitates and 390 associated with surface-bound detritus rather than being directly adsorbed to the plastic itself. 391 Nevertheless, it is clear that these concentrations are orders of magnitude lower than measured or 392 indicative Cd- and Pb-based additive contents in historical or recycled plastics (Tables 2 and 3) and 393 the concentrations of these additives that are potentially mobile (Figure 2). Significantly, and unlike 394 the case for added metals (e.g. Boyle et al., 2020), there is no evidence that adsorbed metals exert 395 any adverse effects on wildlife at concentrations encountered in the environment.

6. Application of regulations to hazardous metals in environmental plastics

397 The directives described in Table 1 that apply to new or newly recycled products are now well-

398 recognized and widely enforced in the EU. However, the period between production-use and

- disposal or loss of consumer plastics means that many historical or recycled plastics in the
- 400 environment are non-compliant with respect to current standards or regulatory limits. More
- 401 generally, there appear to be important loopholes that enable plastics defined as hazardous in one

sector to be recycled into new (compliant or otherwise) goods in another sector that evade
regulation or where regulation is less clear. For instance, electrical and electronic plastic containing
concentrations of Cd and Pb in excess of the respective RoHS limits of 100 mg kg⁻¹ and 1000 mg kg⁻¹
appears to be recycled widely into consumer goods (Turner, 2018a; Turner and Filella, 2021) and
into industrial plastics that are used in water treatment (Turner et al., 2019).

In order to evaluate the risk of such plastics, the accumulation and ecotoxicological implications of metals need to be addressed through studies of bioavailability (or at least bioaccessibility). Chemical bioavailability is a critical component of the TS Directive, with limits stipulated for various metals that are extractable from articles (including plastic toys) under chemical and physiological conditions representative of an infant's stomach; namely, 100 mg of material of < 6 mm in diameter in 5 mL of 0.07 M HCl for 2 h at 37°C and in the dark (British Standard, 1995). Threshold limits are based on the assumption of ingestion of 8 mg material per day and are shown in Table 1.

414 Rochman et al. (2013) argued for environmental plastics to be classified as hazardous based on more 415 general physical and chemical characteristics but here we propose that more objective and 416 quantitative criteria are available that relate metal concentrations to existing or modified 417 regulations. For example, the northern fulmar (Fulmarus glacialis), an indicator species of plastic 418 pollution according to the Oslo-Paris Convention for the North-East Atlantic (OSPAR, 2008), ingests 419 plastics of size comparable to that stipulated by the TS Directive (Van Frankener et al., 2011) and has 420 a digestive chemistry and physiology that is broadly similar to that of the human stomach (Hilton et 421 al., 2020). Critically, however, non-food items can remain trapped in the proventriculus-gizzard for 422 weeks to months as they are ground down to a size small enough to transit into the gut (Avery-423 Gomm et al., 2012) and the digestive system may contain, additionally, significant quantities of 424 dietary-derived oils (Tanaka et al., 2015). Assuming that the size of plastic particles ingested or 425 ground down in the gizzard are similar to those mechanically micronized as part of British Standard 426 (1995), and assuming that F. glacialis ingests an average of 8 mg of plastic per day, one could argue 427 that the current TS Directive limits for metals are applicable for an extended digestive test 428 conducted in the presence of fish oil. The results shown in Figure 2 for acidified saline solution in the 429 presence of fish oil essentially reflect the kinetics of Cd and Pb release from plastics subject to this 430 digestive process. Thus, concentrations of Pb mobilized from PVC in Figure 2 exceed the toy safety 431 limit of 23 mg kg⁻¹ by one or two orders of magnitude throughout the time course while the concentration of Cd mobilized from PC-ABS marginally exceeds the limit of 17 mg kg⁻¹ at the 432 433 termination of the experiment.

434 Although historical or recycled plastics clearly pose a risk to wildlife whose digestive chemistry favors 435 the mobilization of hazardous metals, information on the abundance and availability of 436 contaminated plastics in the environment is also required. To this end, two recent studies have 437 provided a valuable insight into the prevalence of Cd and Pb in beached plastic litter (summarized in 438 Table 4). Thus, first, analysis of polyolefin-based microplastic pellets and fragments (< 5 mm) 439 collected from the strandlines of coastal beaches in southwest England by Massos and Turner (2017) 440 revealed that over 100 out of 924 samples contained total Cd or Pb (or both) above the respective TS 441 Directive limits. Second, analysis of a wider range of plastics collected from the shores of Lake 442 Geneva by Filella and Turner (2018) revealed that over 200 out of 678 plastics contained total Cd or Pb (or both) above the respective limits. It would appear, therefore, that between about 10 and 30% 443 444 of environmental plastics that are beached are potentially harmful with regard to a modified toy 445 safety test. Concentrations of Cd and Pb reported by Prunier et al. (2019) for a more limited number 446 of meso- and microplastics in the North Atlantic gyre (summarized in Table 4) suggests that a similar 447 degree of "non-compliance" may also exist in the open ocean.

In addition to the abundance of contaminated plastics, exposure and risk may also be modified by the selection or avoidance of plastics based on color that is, for example, similar or dissimilar to natural prey (Ory et al., 2017; Duncan et al., 2019). Specifically, and as discussed above, cadmium sulfide and lead chromate and their derivatives are bright yellow, red or orange, while an array of metals are encountered in recycled electronic plastics that tend to be black (Turner, 2018a; Shaw and Turner, 2019).

454 **7. Conclusions**

455 Hazardous metal additives have served various functions in historical plastics (mainly as pigments for 456 color and stabilizers in PVC) but are now restricted under a number of consumer and sustainability 457 regulations. Despite these regulations and the consequent development of safer alternative 458 additives, however, hazardous metals have become dispersed amongst contemporary consumer 459 goods through material recycling. Moreover, because of the pervasiveness of plastics, poor 460 management and disposal of historical plastics and the apparent recent use of restricted additives in 461 marine and industrial applications, hazardous metals widely contaminate plastics lost in nature. 462 Unfortunately, relatively little attention has been paid to hazardous metals in environmental 463 plastics, with the main focus (and misconception) in this setting related to the importance of 464 relatively low concentrations of metals acquired (e.g. adsorbed) from the surroundings. 465 Concentrations of additive-bound metals that can be mobilized from historical plastics under 466 conditions that simulate the digestive environment can be orders of magnitude higher than metal 467 concentrations adsorbed to plastics. Accordingly, it is proposed that the risks posed by these plastics

- to wildlife could be evaluated by comparing empirically-derived mobilized concentrations with
- 469 corresponding migration safety limits defined for hazardous metals in consumer products like toys.

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471 Declaration of interest statement

472 The authors declare that they have no conflicts of interest.

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- 802

804 Tables

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- Table 1: Metals in plastics that are regulated in Europe and current limit values according to various
- directives. TS = migration limits in 0.07 M HCl specified by the Toy Safety Directive; RoHS, ELV, PPW,
- 808 CFS and OTC = total concentrations specified by directives relating to the Restriction of Hazardous
- 809 Substances, End-of-Life Vehicles, Packaging and Packaging Waste, contact with foodstuffs and
- 810 organotin compounds, respectively; hazardous classification is based on inclusion in at least two
- 811 directives and defined in REACH as a SVHC.

	TS	RoHS	ELV	PPW	CFS	OTC	hazardous
Metal	mg kg ⁻¹ (0.07M HCl)	mg kg⁻¹ (total)	mg kg⁻¹ (total)	mg kg⁻¹ (total)	mg kg⁻¹ (total)	mg kg⁻¹ (total)	
Al	70,000						
As	47				1		yes
Ва	18,750						
Cd	17	100	100	100 ^ª			yes
Cr(III)	460						
Cr(IV)	0.2	1000	1000	100 ^ª	1 ^b		yes
Со	130						yes
Cu	7700				5		
Hg	160	1000	1000	100 ^ª			yes
Mn	15,400						
Ni	930						
Pb	23	1000	1000	100 ^ª	2		yes
Sb	560						
Se	460						
Sn	180,000						
Sn (organic)	12					1000	yes
Sr	56,000						
Zn	46,000				100		-

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^aThe combined limit for all four metals is 100 mg kg⁻¹.

^bThe oxidation state of Cr is not specified but assumed to be VI.

815

817 Table 2: Examples of hazardous metal-based compounds that have been commonly employed in plastics, and in particular in Europe, along with their

818 physico-chemical properties; nd = no data found. Sources of information: ChemicalBook CAS DataBase; ECHA (2009; 2010; 2011; 2012; 2016; 2017); Filella

819 and Turner (2018); Hansen et al. (2013); Haynes (2015); Lofrano et al. (2018); Malik and Jain (1969); Piver (1973); Ranta-Korpi et al. (2014); RPA (2005);

820 Zitko, 1999). PE = polyethylene; PET = polyethylene terephthalate; PP = polypropylene; PU = polyurethane; PVC = polyvinyl chloride.

metal	compound	chemical formula	description	molecular mass	aq. solubility @ 20°C, mg L	⁻¹ density, g mL ⁻¹	plastic types	function	conc. in plastic, mg kg ⁻¹
As	10,10'-oxybisphenoxarsine	$C_{24}H_{16}As_2O_3$	organometallic liquid	502.23	5.0	1.40-1.42	PVC	bacterioside/fungicide	300-500
Cd	cadmium sulphide	CdS	inorganic solid	144.48	1.3	4.83	all	pigment (yellow)	100-25,000
	cadmium selenide	CdSe	inorganic solid	191.38	"insoluble"	5.82	all	pigment (red)	100-25,000
	cadmium stearate	C ₃₆ H ₇₀ CdO ₄	organic acid salt	679.40	"insoluble"	1.28	PVC	stabiliser	1000
	cadmium dodecanoate	$C_{24}H_{46}CdO_4$	organic acid salt	511.04	"insoluble"	nd	PVC	stabiliser	1000
Со	cobalt(II) diacetate	C ₄ H ₆ CoO ₄	organic acid salt	177.02	"readily soluble"	1.71	PET	pigment (blue)	<10,000
Cr(VI)	chromium(VI) trioxide	CrO₃	inorganic solid	99.99	"soluble"	2.70	PE	catalyst	<5
	see also lead chromate								
Hg	phenylmercury compounds	$C_x H_y Hg_2 O_4 \text{ or } C_x H_y Hg O_2$	2 organometallic solids	336.75-837.80	0.14-1843	nd	PU	catalyst	1000-3000
	mercury sulphide	HgS	inorganic solid	232.66	"insoluble"	8.10	PE, PP	pigment (red)	<1000
Pb	lead chromate	PbCrO ₄	inorganic solid	323.19	0.2	6.12	all	pigment (yellow)	<50,000
	lead sulfate	PbSO ₄	inorganic solid	303.26	44.5	6.29	all	pigment (red)	<50,000
	lead molybdate	PbMoO ₄	inorganic solid	367.13	0.16	6.92	all	pigment (red)	<50,000
	tetralead trioxide sulfate	3PbO·PbSO ₄	inorganic solid	972.86	"insoluble"	6.40	PVC	stabiliser	25,000
	trilead bis(carbonate) dihydroxide	$Pb_3(CO_3)_2(OH)_2$	inorganic solid	775.90	"insoluble"	6.14	PVC	stabiliser	25,000
	trilead dioxide phosphonate	PbHPO ₃ ·2(PbO)	inorganic solid	733.58	"insoluble"	6.90	PVC	stabiliser	25,000
Sn	dibutyltin dilaureate	$C_{32}H_{64}O_4Sn$	organometallic liquid	631.56	<1.43	1.07	PVC and PU	stabiliser and catalyst	500-3000
	dibutyltin maleate	$C_{12}H_{20}O_4Sn$	organometallic liquid	346.99	"immiscible"	1.32	PVC	stabiliser	10-10,000

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- Table 3: Maximum concentrations of Cd and Pb reported in plastic litter from various environments,
- 825 along with the polymer in which maximum concentrations were observed (PE = polyethylene, PP =
- 826 polypropylene; PVC = polyvinyl chloride).

location	litter type (no. samples)	Cd, mg kg ⁻¹	Pb, mg kg ⁻¹	polymer	source
Lake Geneva	beached plastic litter ($n = 670$)	6760	23,500	PE, PVC	Filella and Turner (2018)
North Atlantic subtropical Gyre	mesoplastics ($n = 13$)	4280	8310	PE	Prunier et al. (2019)
	microplastics $(n = 4)$	105	112	PE	
NW Europe	water treatment beads ($n = 537$)	312	5380	PE	Turner et al. (2019)
Ookushi beach, Japan	fishing floats ($n = 17$)	nd ^a	21,900 ^b	PVC	Nakashami et al. (2012b)
SW England	beached microplastic pellets ($n = 752$)	3390	5330	PP, PE	Massos and Turner (2017)
	beached microplastic fragments ($n = 172$)	2620	4820	PP, PE	

828 ^aNot detected

829 ^bConcentration represents the sum of the mean and error provided.

830

Table 4: Concentrations of Cd and Pb acquired by various environmental plastics from their

832 surroundings and evaluated by acid extraction.

location	description	measure	Cd, mg kg ⁻¹	Pb, mg kg ⁻¹	source
Australian coast	beached microplastics	max	0.088	0.50	Carbery et al. (2020)
Azores, N Atlantic	beached microplastics	mean	5.8	4.3	Martins et al. (2020)
Chao Phraya River, Thailand	sediment microplastics	mean		17.6	Ta and Babel (2020)
Chennai coast, India	beached plastics	max		1.85	Suman et al. (2020)
Hong Kong coast	beached microplastics	median	0.04		Li et al. (2020)
Musi River, Indonesia	suspended microplastics	mean		0.47	Purwiyanto et al. (2020)
Nigerian coast	beached microplastics	max	0.10	2.51	Fred-Ahmadu et al. (2020a)
SW English coast	beached pellets	max	0.01	1.08	Ashton et al. (2010)
Vis Island, Croatia	beached pellets	max	0.005	8.5	Jasna et al. (2019)

- 836 Figure legends
- 837
- 838 Figure 1: Energy-dispersive XRF spectra, as counts per second versus energy in keV, of different
- 839 environmental plastics (of ~ 2 to 8 cm in length) containing hazardous metal-based additives
- 840 (unpublished data of the authors derived from direct sample analysis using a Niton XLt3+ portable
- 841 XRF). (a) An irregular fragment of plastic from a beach in SW England pigmented with Cd₂SSe, (b) a
- piece of wrapping from agricultural land in central Spain pigmented with PbCrO₄, (c) PVC-film from a
- 843 beach on Lake Geneva with a Sn-based stabilizer and (d) a curved PVC fragment from a beach in Lake
- 844 Geneva with a Pb-based stabilizer.
- 845
- 846 Figure 2: Mobilization of (a) Cd from 100 mg L⁻¹ of micronized (< 1 mm in two dimensions) polyvinyl
- 847 chloride (PVC) and (b) Pb from 100 mg L⁻¹ of micronized polycarbonate-acryl nitro butadiene (PC-
- 848 ABS) into different solutions mimicking the digestive environments of a seabird (replotted from
- 849 Smith and Turner, 2020). The red dashed lines denote the respective Toy Safety Directive migration
- 850 limits.
- 851